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Gender Diversity and Inclusion in Higher Education in Pakistan

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Abstract

This study attempts to analyze gender diversity in higher education in Pakistan using teachers' perspectives. Gender differentials in higher education in terms of female outperformance and male underperformance in higher education have not been received due to academic concerns in Pakistan. Hence, females and males' academic performance in education has attracted academicians since the 1970s. For this study, a sample of 253 teachers has been sampled from the population of the University of the Punjab, Lahore. This study opted stratified random sampling technique and selected teachers from each department. A survey method has been used as a technique of data collection. Similarly, the structured questionnaire has been administered to collect data from the respondents on the subject. This measurement tool has been pretested to check its reliability. Statistical analysis has been done to draw results and conclusions. Normality test, Kruskal Wallis Test, and Kendall's tau_b test have been employed. The study findings reveal that there has been a significant correlation between independent variables and gender differentials in academic performance in higher education in Punjab, Pakistan.

Keywords: *Gender Diversity, Gender Inequality, Higher Education, Academic Performance*

1. Introduction

Females and males' academic performance in education has attracted academicians since the 1970s (Ahmad, Shoaib, & Shaukat, 2021; Corbett, Hill, & St Rose, 2008). Since then, a considerable number of research studies (Buchmann & DiPrete, 2006; Frosh, Phoenix, & Pattman, 2003) have been carried out on the issue in different contexts (i.e., USA, UK, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Sweden, Denmark and Norway). The phenomena (female outperformance and male underperformance) have attracted policymakers, politicians, media, and academicians across the world (Smith, 2017). In many countries (i.e., the UK, and the USA), this transformation was called the boys' crisis and challenge to masculinity. The global north (i.e. Australia, Canada, Germany, Denmark, France, UK, Japan, Poland, etc.) has been trying to improve boys' performance and put them on a competitive pace with girls (Lynch & Feeley, 2009). Females' outperformance and boys' poor education achievements are growing structural transformations happening in Pakistan, though unnoticed (Shoaib, 2021, 2023a, 2023b; Shoaib, Anwar, & Mustafa, 2022). This study aimed to understand the gender difference in educational attainment from teachers' point of view to initiate debate on the issue. Hence, this study intends to examine how teachers explain gender diversity in academic performance in Pakistani higher education. This gender reverse change in education performance is a very important issue and needs to be examined and highlighted with great academic sophistication.

2. Review of Literature

The recent decades have seen a change in the gendered geography of education in developed, developing, and Muslim countries. Many studies demonstrated that females are doing better than males in education in developed countries (Ahmad, Shoaib, & Abdullah, 2021; Carrier, 2009; Hicks, Johnson, Iacono, & McGue, 2008; Lahelma, 2005; Meece, Glienke, & Burg, 2006; Preckel,

Goetz, Pekrun, & Kleine, 2008; Shoaib & Ullah, 2019; Spinath, Spinath, & Plomin, 2008; Steinmayr & Spinath, 2008) Initially, it is argued that girls, at school level, are performing better than boys in the developed world (Carrier, 2009; Matthews, Ponitz, & Morrison, 2009; Steinmayr & Spinath, 2008). It is pertinent to mention here that boys' underperformance and girls' outperformance are not limited to the school level but also prevail in higher education as well in the developed world (Batool, Sajid, & Shaheen, 2013; Houtte, 2004; Naseer, Shoaib, Ali, & Ahmad, 2021; Shoaib & Shah, 2012).

As regards developing countries, higher education has also seen gender reversal change (Jha, Bakshi, & Faria, 2012a; Kim, Cho, & Kim, 2019; Shoaib, Mustafa, & Hussain, 2023; Suryadarma, Suryahadi, Sumarto, & Rogers, 2006). The recent decades have seen a change in the gendered geography of education in developing countries (Ashraf, Khaki, Shamatov, Tajik, & Vazir, 2005; Jha, Bakshi, & Faria, 2012b; Shoaib, Tariq, Shahzadi, & Ali, 2022; Suryadarma et al., 2006). Many studies demonstrate that females are doing better than males in education (Ashraf et al., 2005; Effah, 2011; Hossain & Ahmed, 2013; Jha et al., 2012b; Kim et al., 2019; Shoaib, Anwar, & Rasool, 2022; Shoaib, Mustafa, & Hussain, 2022; Suryadarma et al., 2006). Initially, it is argued that girls at the school level are performing better than boys in developing countries (Jha et al., 2012a; Saba Mariam, Anwar, & Shoaib, 2022; Nuamah, 2018; Shoaib, Ali, Anwar, & Abdullah, 2022). It is valid to mention here that boys' underperformance and girls' outperformance are not limited to the school level but also prevail in higher education as well in the developing countries (Ali, Shoaib, & Abdullah, 2022; Bedard & Cho, 2010; Chiu & McBride-Chang, 2006; Fleischmann et al., 2014; Jha & Kelleher, 2006; Kim et al., 2019; Shoaib, Iqbal, & Tahira, 2021; Shoaib, Rasool, & Anwar, 2021).

The gender reversal change is not only confined to developed and developing countries, but it has also been observed in Muslim countries of the world (Basit, 2017; Munawar & Tariq, 2018; Rahman, 2002; Shah & Sobehart, 2008; Shoaib, Ali, Anwar, & Shaukat, 2021; Shoaib, Ali, & Akbar, 2021; Shoaib, Fatima, & Jamil, 2021; Smits & Huisman, 2013; Yousif, 2011). The recent decades have seen a change in the gendered geography of education in Muslim countries. Many studies demonstrate that females are doing better than males in education (Al-Mazidi & Abusham, 2018; Jebreil, Azizifar, & Gowhary, 2015; Kabir & Greenwood, 2016; Shoaib, Abdullah, & Ali, 2021; Shoaib, Ahmad, Ali, & Abdullah, 2021; Shoaib, Ali, Anwar, Rasool, et al., 2021; Smits & Huisman, 2013; Statistics, 2011; Yasin, Khansari, & Sharif, 2020). Initially, it is argued that girls at the school level are performing better than boys (Jha et al., 2012a; Kim et al., 2019; Latif, 2009; Nuamah, 2018; Suryadarma et al., 2006; Ullah & Ullah, 2019). It is important to mention here that boys' underperformance and girls' outperformance are not limited to the school level but also prevail in higher education (Abdulla & Ridge, 2011; Abdullah, 2011; Allam, 2020; Shoaib & Ullah, 2019; Smits & Huisman, 2013).

The gender of the students is a very important element in explaining position acquiring in the educational sector. The research conducted by several researchers supported the argument of the gender gap in educational performance (Anwar, Shoaib, & Zahra, 2021; S Mariam, Anwar, Shoaib, & Rasool, 2021; Shoaib, 2021). Gender differences have been observed to be inherited and natural (Hicks et al., 2008; Spinath et al., 2008): variation proficiencies and ability of learners (Buzhigeeva, 2004; Deary et al., 2007): physical orientation variation (Steinmayr & Spinath, 2008): type and motivation level differences (Gilman & Anderman, 2006; Preckel, Holling, & Wiese, 2006): dissimilar behavior towards education (Ahmad, Ahmad, Shoaib, & Shaukat, 2021; Ahmad, M. Shoaib, et al., 2021; Buzhigeeva, 2004; Carrier, 2009): variation in personal experiences (Lahelma, 2005): a set of socio-cultural beliefs (Ahmad, A. Ahmad, et al., 2021;

Ahmad, M. Shoaib, et al., 2021; Meelissen & Luyten, 2008; Shoaib, Abdullah, & Ali, 2020; Shoaib, Latif, & Usmani, 2013): and learning styles and differences of self-discipline (Carrier, 2009; Matthews et al., 2009) specifically interesting description of gap in academics having top three positions regarding changing aspects of interaction of learners and teachers or teachers and learners gender combination. Social interaction based on the gender of learner and teacher affects the field of policy and educational research. The reason for the interest in the field is linked to several pieces of evidence including female teachers' dominance in the education system in several countries.

3. Data and Methods

For this study, a sample of 253 teachers has been sampled from the population of the University of the Punjab, Lahore. This study opted stratified random sampling technique and selected teachers from each department. A survey method has been used as a technique of data collection. Similarly, the structured questionnaire has been administered to collect data from the respondents on the subject. This measurement tool has been pretested to check its reliability. Statistical analysis has been done to draw results and conclusions. Normality test, Kruskal Wallis Test, and Kendall's tau_b test have been employed.

4. The Results

Table 1 presents the normality test based on Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk statistical tests. It was claimed from the table based on Kolmogorov-Smirnov that not all the variables followed the normal distribution at a 5 percent level of significance except three variables namely critical factors, household determinants, and educational determinants. These variables were not normally distributed. Furthermore, the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality also indicated that most of the considered variables did not follow the normal distribution. This was suggested that the non-parametric test should be used to test the different hypotheses for these variables.

Table 1

Normality Test

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Students' home background (favorable socialization)	.089	251	.000	.969	251	.000
Socio-economic status of the family	.072	251	.003	.982	251	.003
Parental involvement (favorable to females)	.082	251	.000	.966	251	.000
Role of social media	.103	251	.000	.976	251	.000
Role of peer group	.105	251	.000	.979	251	.001
Educational determinants	.086	251	.000	.981	251	.002
Educational background	.118	251	.000	.921	251	.000
Student-teacher interaction	.097	251	.000	.980	251	.002
Teachers' competency and gender	.066	251	.010	.983	251	.004
Classroom environment	.097	251	.000	.954	251	.000
Gender-specific study culture	.104	251	.000	.950	251	.000
Motivation and commitment	.087	251	.000	.978	251	.001

Self-fulfilling prophecy	.115	251	.000	.982	251	.002
Gender differentials in academic performance	.109	251	.000	.967	251	.000
Historical factors	.069	251	.005	.988	251	.031
Cultural factors	.118	251	.000	.970	251	.000
Structural factors	.073	251	.003	.986	251	.014
Critical factors	.064	251	.014	.983	251	.004
Household Determinants	.058	251	.037	.975	251	.000
Educational Determinants	.058	251	.042	.961	251	.000
Motivation, Commitment, and Self-fulfilling Prophecy	.096	251	.000	.981	251	.002
Sociological Factors	.072	251	.003	.989	251	.058

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 2 depicts a nonparametric test known as the Kruskal Wallis Test which is an extension of the Mann-Whitney U statistical test. It allows the comparison of more than two independent groups based on the sum of ranks. In this case, the independent variable consists of three independent groups of university teachers based on their educational qualifications including MA/MSc, MS/M. Phil and Ph.D. degree holders. The statistical results in the table show that the role of motivation and commitment of the students was significantly different for three groups of teachers with a p-value of 0.015 (p-value < 0.05). Similarly, the results also support that the self-fulfilling prophecy of the students in academic performance was also significantly different for university teachers' educational groups.

Table 2

Kruskal Wallis Test (Educational Qualification)

Variables	Chi-square	df	Asymp. Sig.
Motivation and commitment	8.392349	2	.015
Self-fulfilling prophecy	5.751449	2	.056
Structural factors	8.167260	2	.017
Critical factors	11.753622	2	.003
Sociological Factors	6.285516	2	.043
Motivation & Commitment and Self-fulfilling Prophecy	7.453608	2	.024
Role of gender-specific study culture	1.904991	2	.386
Teachers’ competency and gender	2.789526	2	.248

Further, structural factors and critical factors of the academic performance of the students were significantly different for MA/MSc and MS/M. Phil and Ph.D. degree holder teachers with a p-value of 0.017 and 0.003 respectively. Moreover, the results supported the hypothesis that motivational factors and sociological factors of gender differentials in the academic performance of the students were significantly different from the p-value of .024 and .043 respectively concerning teachers' educational qualifications. This meant that the responses of master's degree holders were different from M. Phil and Ph.D. degree holder teachers as well. Conversely, the last two variables were not significantly different with a p-value of 0.386 and 0.248, higher than the significance level (0.05). Therefore, the results supported that there was no significant difference

in the role of gender-specific study culture and teachers' competency and gender concerning three groups of university teachers based on their educational qualifications.

Table 3 depicts a nonparametric measure of the direction and strength of association between two variables on an ordinal scale. Kendall's tau_b statistical test results showed that there was a significant positive correlation (tau_b = .335) between parental involvement and the home background of the students regarding favorable socialization. Further, the home background of the students had also a significant positive correlation with socio-economic status (tau_b = .128), social media exposure (tau_b = .132), and gender differentials in academic performance of students (tau_b = .170). Moreover, the socioeconomic status of the students also had a significant positive correlation with parental involvement (tau-b = .124) and gender differential in academic performance (tau-b = .192). On the other hand, it had no significant correlation (tau_b = .010) with social media exposure (p-value = .815). Furthermore, parental involvement had also a similar positive significant correlation with social media (tau_b = .235) and gender differentials in academic performance (tau_b = .222)

Table 3

Kendall's tau_b of Household Determinants, Social Media and Gender Differentials in Academic Performance

Variables	SHB	SES	PAI	RSM	GDI /GDA
SHB	1.000	.128**	.335**	.132**	.170**
		.004	.000	.003	.000
SES		1.000	.124**	.010	.192**
			.006	.815	.000
PAI			1.000	.235**	.222**
				.000	.000
RSM				1.000	.163**
					.000
GDI/ GDA					1.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4 highlighted Kendall's tau-b statistical test between two variables on ordinal scales. It provided a nonparametric measure of the direction and strength of association. The results supported that there was a significant positive correlation (tau_b = .315) between the role of the peer group and the educational background of the students. Further, the role of peer group had also a significant positive moderate correlation with educational determinants (tau_b = .251), student-teacher interaction (tau_b = .343), and gender differentials in academic performance of students (tau_b = .265). Moreover, educational determinants of the students also had a significant positive correlation with student-teacher interaction (tau-b = .246) and gender differential in academic performance (tau-b = .236). On the other hand, it had a less significant correlation (tau_b = .173) with the educational background of the students. Furthermore, the educational background of the students had also similar positive significant correlation with student-teacher interaction (tau_b = .296) and gender differentials in academic performance (tau_b = .254).

Table 4

Kendall's tau_b of Peer Group, Educational Determinants and Gender Differentials in Academic Performance

Variables	RPG	EDD	EDB	STI	GDI/ GDA
RPG	1.000	.251**	.315**	.343**	.265**
		.000	.000	.000	.000
EDD		1.000	.173**	.246**	.236**
			.000	.000	.000
EDB			1.000	.296**	.254**
				.000	.000
STI				1.000	.168**
					.000
GDI/ GDA					1.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5 shows a nonparametric measure of the direction and strength of the association between two variables on the ordinal scale. Kendall's tau_b statistical test results showed that there was a significant positive correlation (tau_b = .314) between classroom environment and teachers' competency and gender. Further, teachers' competency and gender had also a significant positive correlation with gender-specific study culture (tau_b = .295), motivation and commitment (tau_b = .279), and self-fulfilling prophecy (tau_b = .266).

Table 5

Kendall's tau_b of Educational and Motivational Factors and Gender Differentials in Academic Performance

Variables	TCG	CLE	RGS	MOC	SFP	GDI/ GDA
TCG	1.000	.314**	.295**	.279**	.266**	.190**
		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
CLE		1.000	.356**	.425**	.231**	.327**
			.000	.000	.000	.000
RGS			1.000	.378**	.321**	.298**
				.000	.000	.000
MOC				1.000	.294**	.351**
					.000	.000
SFP					1.000	.404**
						.000
GDI/ GDA						1.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Moreover, classroom environment had a significant moderate positive correlation with motivation and commitment (tau-b = .425), gender-specific study culture, and gender differential in academic performance (tau-b = .327). On the other hand, gender-specific study culture had a positive significant correlation with motivation and commitment (tau_b = 378), self-fulfilling prophecy (tau_b = .321), and gender differentials in academic performance of the students (tau_b = .298).

Furthermore, motivation and commitment had also a similar positive significant correlation with self-fulling prophecy (tau_b = .294) and gender differentials in academic performance (tau_b = .351). Moreover, self-fulling prophecy had a moderate positive correlation with gender differentials in the academic performance of the students.

Moreover, cultural factors also had a significant positive correlation with structural factors (tau-b = .260) and critical factors (tau_b = .284). On the other hand, it had a moderate positive correlation with gender differentials in the academic performance of students (tau_b = .334). Furthermore, structural factors had a moderate positive correlation (tau_b = .324) with critical factors and had a positive significant relationship with gender differentials in the academic performance of the students. It was also reported that critical factors had a positive significant correlation (tau_b = .236) with gender differentials in academic performance.

Table 6

Kendall's tau_b Sociological Analysis and Gender Differentials in Academic Performance

Variables	HIF	CUF	STF	CRF	GDI/ GDA
HIF	1.000	.291**	.146**	.206**	.145**
		.000	.001	.000	.001
CUF		1.000	.260**	.284**	.334**
			.000	.000	.000
STF			1.000	.324**	.257**
				.000	.000
CRF				1.000	.236**
					.000
GDI/ GDA					1.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6 presents Kendall's tau-b statistical test between two variables on ordinal scales. It provided a nonparametric measure of the direction and strength of association. The results supported that there was a significant positive correlation (tau_b = .206) between historical and critical factors. Further, the historical factors had also a significant positive correlation with cultural factors (tau_b = .219), structural factors (tau_b = .146), and gender differentials in the academic performance of students (tau_b = .145).

Table 7 shows a nonparametric measure of the direction and strength of the association between two variables on the ordinal scale. Kendall's tau_b statistical test results showed that there was a significant positive correlation (tau_b = .304) between household determinants and sociological factors. Further, these household determinants also had a significant positive correlation with educational determents (tau_b = .274), motivation and self-fulling prophecy (tau_b = .274), and gender differentials in academic performance of students (tau_b = .266). Moreover, educational determinants of the students had a significant moderate positive correlation with motivation and self-fulling prophecy (tau-b = .396) and sociological factors (tau_b = .360). It also had a positive significant correlation with gender differential in academic performance (tau-b = .288).

Table 7

Overall Kendall's tau-b Statistical Analysis

Variables	HHD	EDD	MSF	SOF	GDI/ GDA
HHD	1.000	.274**	.273**	.304**	.266**
		.000	.000	.000	.000
EDD		1.000	.396**	.360**	.288**
			.000	.000	.000
MSF			1.000	.412**	.452**
				.000	.000
SOF				1.000	.345**
					.000
GDI/ GDA					1.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

On the other hand, motivation and self-fulling prophecy had a moderate positive correlation with sociological facts (tau_b = .412) and gender differentials in the academic performance of the students (tau_ = .452). Furthermore, sociological factors also had a similar moderate positive correlation with gender differentials in academic performance (tau_b = .345).

5. Discussion

The study findings do not align with the biological deterministic approach. It implies that social behavior is an outcome of biological dissimilarities among boys and girls. This approach argues that female and male differences are based on God-gifted intelligence and skills. Several studies have highlighted that females and males have different sizes of the brain, intelligence, and reasoning skills based on their biological characteristics (Aluja-Fabregat, Colom, Abad, & Juan-Espinosa, 2000; Pardeller, Frajo-Apor, Kemmler, & Hofer, 2017; Tang et al., 2010). Based on these differences, they argue that males perform better than female students in educational examinations at the tertiary level. The point of assertion here is that gender reverse change is not because of the biological characteristics of females and males as my study findings are not in favor of this approach. Academic performance is not based on the physiological difference between females and males but is linked with other factors such as parental role, study environment, and socialization differences. Hence, it has been argued that gender reverse change is not a biological phenomenon.

Contrary to biological determinism, the study findings are aligned with psychological determinism. These findings are linked with the theory of psychodynamics given by Freud (1977). It is argued that the development of the gender identity of girls and boys is linked with their early socialization patterns provided in their families by their parents. This gender identity provided from familial background creates a difference in academic performance. As the findings of an empirical review of the literature are evident female students achieve better scores in examination results. This trait of securing high positions in examinations in their personality developed in their early interaction with parents makes them fit in educational performance. My argument, based on the study findings here, is that mother and father both provide a caring environment for daughters and sons to become earning members of the family and perform outdoor activities. Similarly, these traits are developed at an early age resulting in gender differentials in academic performance. In conclusion, femininity and masculinity are constructed in a cultural environment that results in gender differences in choices in the future. Thus, early personality development traits push girls to perform well and boys to think about familial economic matters. This familial responsibility for boys in securing top positions in examinations.

Similarly, the study findings are also aligned with social learning theory that explains the development of gender identity. The main proponents of the social learning approach are Bandura and Walters (1977), L'Abate and Bryson (1994), and Mischel (1973). This theory is also linked with behaviorism and conditioning behavior given by Kimble (1961), and Burchard and Tyler (1964). This approach elaborates that learning is based on the concept of reward and punishment similar to the carrot and stick method. As behavior followed by appreciation and acceptance is likely to be repeated again and again. As a result, the core assumption of this theory is linked with the study findings that female outperformance is based on their acceptance and appreciation by parents and teachers.

Moreover, the study findings are linked with the cognitive development theory by Piaget (1972) and Erikson (1994). The core assumption of these theories asserts that girl and boy children learn through interaction, and try to develop their stages of personality. They try to develop their gender identity starting their sensorimotor stage of personality development to the formal operational stage of personality. During these stages of personality development, girls and boys learn differently to play with toys, recognize objects and symbols, and the ability to analyze the objects logically in later stages. This primary learning in femininity and masculinity develops an opinion about gender differences that may not change over time. Similar to the assumption of these theories, female and male students learn differently in their early educational careers. These differences in learning based on previous educational grades result in gender reverse change at the tertiary level.

The study findings are also aligned with the sociologists. As they have studied the process of gender socialization and identified the difference between female and male behaviors (Howard & Hollander, 1997; Lerner, 2005; Raty & Snellman, 1992). The process of socialization starts at birth when the family treats a child according to his or her sex in a potentially different way.

It is argued that the socialization of gender roles begins in delivery rooms including a blue dress for boys, and a pink dress for girls. Baby enters a world that is updated with language and symbols which shapes its conception of gender stereotypes and gender roles (Gurian, 2010). The language used in a family mostly centers on physical characteristics and themes for boys like agility and strength while appropriate language for girls used by a family might be daintiness, expressivity, and address affection (Grusec, 2011). These boundaries become the identity standards, and context is used to compare the self to others. The literature on gender role socialization, the mechanisms and procedures that differentiate acceptable behavior for females and males, and the evolvement of behavior over time (Francis, 2006; Halberstam, 2019). Therefore, these differences in socialization result in gender differentials in academic performance in education. The study findings are linked with these core assumptions that female favorable socialization at home motivates them to outperform in education. Moreover, primary data findings also reveal that family background and parental involvement differentiate between female and male students' learning at the tertiary level. The study findings assert that female students belong to urban areas and males are from rural backgrounds. Hence, primary data from university teachers also showed similar nature of results in terms of factors of female outperformance at the tertiary level. Moreover, it is pertinent here to mention that girls and boys learn different feminine and masculine identities as per cultural theories based on gendered socialization.

In the early times, boys were preferred by parents and provided more space for education as compared to girls. They performed better than girls based on favorable environment and learning opportunities. However, as this space and opportunity are provided to girls in learning and education, they are performing better than boys not only at school and college but also at the

university level. Currently, female students are not only in competition but also outnumber and outscore male students in the examination. Consequently, it is pertinent here to mention that the performance in the examination is not linked with biological determinism but with the psychological and socio-cultural domain.

The study findings may also link with the wide range of disparities in Pakistan between male and female performance in exams that are more likely associated with feminine and masculine variations. It is, therefore, found that the varying nature of emerging differences between feminine and masculine characters enables feminists to counter the argument of exponents of the brain and innate differences that produce differences in gender equality and, ultimately, affect the achievements of female and male students at the tertiary level. In my study, the female and male students' performance is more likely linked with the social construction of the society as performance varies with the students who have differences in geographic location and socioeconomic backgrounds along with other factors. Henceforth, I reveal that the gender differentials in academic performance are not linked with biological or body characteristics with learning, feminine and masculine identities along socialization differences. Moreover, the variation in femininity and masculinity provides very important insights to feminists to oppose the notion of a biological deterministic approach to studying gender differentials in examination results and academic performance.

6. Conclusion

The conclusion I reached from this study is based on teachers' perspectives in terms of gender differentials in academic performance in higher education in Pakistan. The data analysis commissioned that several indicators/factors are contributing to gender disparity in academic performance in higher education in Pakistan including familial background, social media, peer group, teacher's role, study habits, self-fulfilling prophecy, historical factors, structural aspects, critical factors, cultural factors, and other gender role socialization factors. The data presented above are full of the assertion that the behavior of students is not determined by their biological determinants but depends on their psychological and sociological determinants. Therefore, the data assert that female students outperform and male students underperform in higher education in Pakistan.

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